

THE MATHEMATICAL THEORY OF CONTEXTUALITY

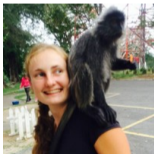
Lecture 1: Introduction

Samson Abramsky

Department of Computer Science, UCL

TACL 2024 Summer School

People



Adam Brandenburger, Lucien Hardy, Shane Mansfield, Rui Soares Barbosa, Ray Lal, Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh, Phokion Kolaitis, Georg Gottlob, Carmen Constantin, Kohei Kishida. Giovanni Caru, Linde Wester, Nadish de Silva, Martti Karvonen

References

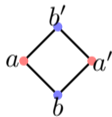
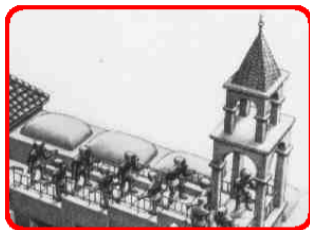
Some papers (all available on the arXiv):

- *The sheaf-theoretic structure of non-locality and contextuality*, SA and Adam Brandenburger, (2011)
- *Logical Bell inequalities*, SA and Lucien Hardy (2012)
- *Contextual Semantics: From Quantum Mechanics to Logic, Databases, Constraints, and Complexity*, SA (2014)
- *Contextuality, cohomology and paradox*, SA, Rui Soares Barbosa, Kohei Kishida, Ray Lal and Shane Mansfield (2015)
- *The contextual fraction as a measure of contextuality*, SA, Rui Soares Barbosa and Shane Mansfield (2017)
- *Towards a complete cohomology invariant for non-locality and contextuality*, Giovanni Carù (2018)
- *The logic of contextuality*, SA and Rui Soares Barbosa (2021)

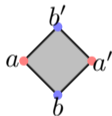
Contextuality in a nutshell

Where we have a family of data which is
locally consistent, but **globally inconsistent**

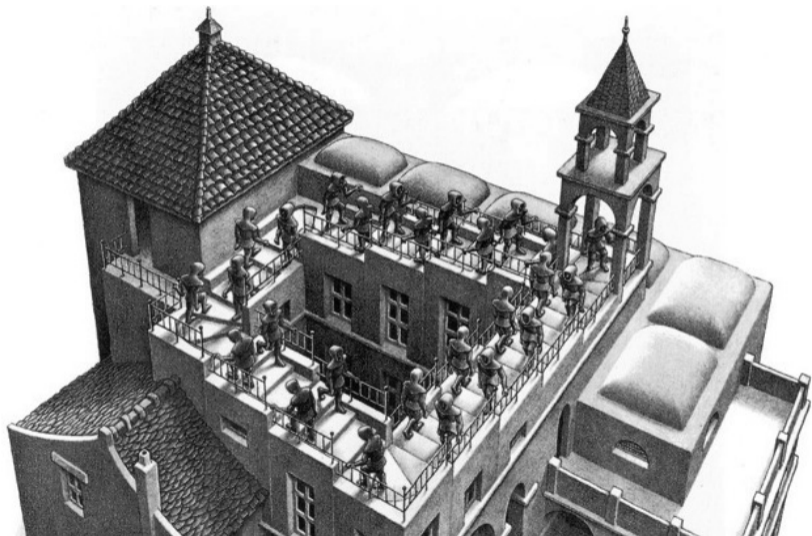
Contextuality Analogy: Local Consistency



Contextuality Analogy: Local Consistency

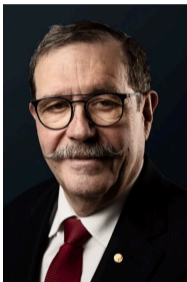


Contextuality Analogy: Global Inconsistency



The Nobel Prize in Physics 2022

Summary



© Nobel Prize Outreach. Photo:
Stefan Bladh

Alain Aspect

Prize share: 1/3



© Nobel Prize Outreach. Photo:
Stefan Bladh

John F. Clauser

Prize share: 1/3



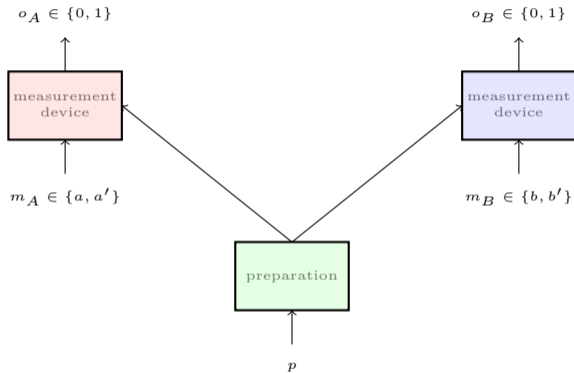
© Nobel Prize Outreach. Photo:
Stefan Bladh

Anton Zeilinger

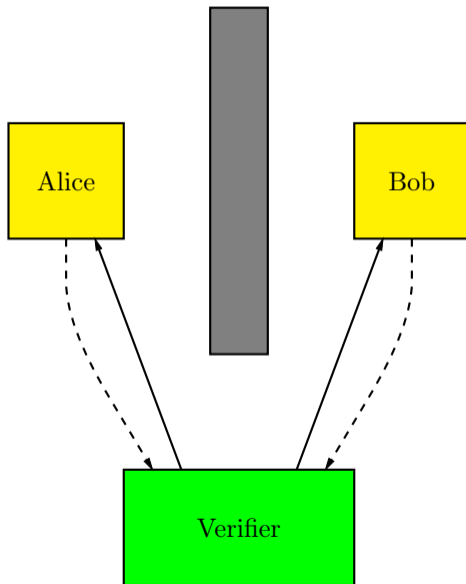
Prize share: 1/3

The Nobel Prize in Physics 2022 was awarded jointly to Alain Aspect, John F. Clauser and Anton Zeilinger "for experiments with entangled photons, establishing the violation of Bell inequalities and pioneering quantum information science"

Testing non-local correlations



Alice-Bob games



The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Verifier (or Nature!):

The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Verifier (or Nature!):

- Verifier chooses an input $x \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, and similarly an input y for Bob. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.

The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Verifier (or Nature!):

- Verifier chooses an input $x \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, and similarly an input y for Bob. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output, $a \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, $b \in \{0, 1\}$ for Bob, depending on their input. They are **not allowed to communicate during the game**.

The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Verifier (or Nature!):

- Verifier chooses an input $x \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, and similarly an input y for Bob. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output, $a \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, $b \in \{0, 1\}$ for Bob, depending on their input. They are **not allowed to communicate during the game**.
- The winning condition: $a \oplus b = x \wedge y$.

The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Verifier (or Nature!):

- Verifier chooses an input $x \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, and similarly an input y for Bob. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output, $a \in \{0, 1\}$ for Alice, $b \in \{0, 1\}$ for Bob, depending on their input. They are **not allowed to communicate during the game**.
- The winning condition: $a \oplus b = x \wedge y$.

A table of conditional probabilities $p(a, b|x, y)$ defines a **probabilistic strategy** for this game. The **success probability** for this strategy is:

$$\begin{aligned} &1/4[p(a = b|x = 0, y = 0) + p(a = b|x = 0, y = 1) + p(a = b|x = 1, y = 0) \\ &\quad + p(a \neq b|x = 1, y = 1)] \end{aligned}$$

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
0	0	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
0	1	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
1	0	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
1	1	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
0	0	1/2	0	0	1/2
0	1	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
1	0	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
1	1	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If the Verifier sends Alice a_1 and Bob b_2 , then with probability $1/8$, Alice outputs a 0 and Bob outputs a 1.

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
0	0	1/2	0	0	1/2
0	1	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
1	0	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
1	1	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If the Verifier sends Alice a_1 and Bob b_2 , then with probability $1/8$, Alice outputs a 0 and Bob outputs a 1.

This gives a winning probability of $\frac{3.25}{4} \approx 0.81$.

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If the Verifier sends Alice a_1 and Bob b_2 , then with probability $1/8$, Alice outputs a 0 and Bob outputs a 1.

This gives a winning probability of $\frac{3.25}{4} \approx 0.81$.

The optimal classical probability is 0.75!

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If the Verifier sends Alice a_1 and Bob b_2 , then with probability $1/8$, Alice outputs a 0 and Bob outputs a 1.

This gives a winning probability of $\frac{3.25}{4} \approx 0.81$.

The optimal classical probability is 0.75!

The proof of this uses (and is essentially the same as) the use of **Bell inequalities**.

A Strategy for the Alice-Bob game

Example: The Bell Model

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If the Verifier sends Alice a_1 and Bob b_2 , then with probability $1/8$, Alice outputs a 0 and Bob outputs a 1.

This gives a winning probability of $\frac{3.25}{4} \approx 0.81$.

The optimal classical probability is 0.75!

The proof of this uses (and is essentially the same as) the use of **Bell inequalities**.

The Bell table exceeds this bound. Since it is **quantum realizable** using an entangled pair of qubits, it shows that quantum resources yield a **quantum advantage** in an information-processing task.

Logic and Probability: from Boole to Bell



George Boole 1815–64



John Stewart Bell 1928–90

Logic and Probability: from Boole to Bell



George Boole 1815–64



John Stewart Bell 1928–90

George Boole was a pioneer of logic, probability, – and of computer science.

Logic and Probability: from Boole to Bell



George Boole 1815–64



John Stewart Bell 1928–90

George Boole was a pioneer of logic, probability, – and of computer science.

There is a remarkable connection between his work in probability from the 1850's and the idea of **Bell inequalities**, fundamental to Bell's theorem, non-locality, and quantum information and computation.

Logic and Probability: from Boole to Bell



George Boole 1815–64



John Stewart Bell 1928–90

George Boole was a pioneer of logic, probability, – and of computer science.

There is a remarkable connection between his work in probability from the 1850's and the idea of **Bell inequalities**, fundamental to Bell's theorem, non-locality, and quantum information and computation.

This was first pointed out by Itamar Pitowsky, *George Boole's 'conditions of possible experience' and the quantum puzzle* (1994).

Logic and Probability: from Boole to Bell



George Boole 1815–64



John Stewart Bell 1928–90

George Boole was a pioneer of logic, probability, – and of computer science.

There is a remarkable connection between his work in probability from the 1850's and the idea of **Bell inequalities**, fundamental to Bell's theorem, non-locality, and quantum information and computation.

This was first pointed out by Itamar Pitowsky, *George Boole's 'conditions of possible experience' and the quantum puzzle* (1994).

Discussion in my paper *Classical Probability, Classical Logic, and Quantum Mechanics* in volume for Pitowsky *Quantum, Probability, Logic* (2020).

Boole's "conditions of possible experience"

Pitowsky's pellucid summary:

Boole's problem is simple: we are given rational numbers which indicate the relative frequencies of certain events. If no logical relations obtain among the events, then the only constraints imposed on these numbers are that they each be non-negative and less than one. If however, the events are logically interconnected, there are further equalities or inequalities that obtain among the numbers. The problem thus is to determine the numerical relations among frequencies, in terms of equalities and inequalities, which are induced by a set of logical relations among the events. The equalities and inequalities are called "conditions of possible experience".

Boole's "conditions of possible experience"

Pitowsky's pellucid summary:

Boole's problem is simple: we are given rational numbers which indicate the relative frequencies of certain events. If no logical relations obtain among the events, then the only constraints imposed on these numbers are that they each be non-negative and less than one. If however, the events are logically interconnected, there are further equalities or inequalities that obtain among the numbers. The problem thus is to determine the numerical relations among frequencies, in terms of equalities and inequalities, which are induced by a set of logical relations among the events. The equalities and inequalities are called "conditions of possible experience".

More formally, we are given basic events E_1, \dots, E_n , and boolean functions $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_m$ of these events. Such a function can be described by a propositional formula in the variables E_1, \dots, E_n .

Suppose further that we are given probabilities $p(E_i)$, $p(\varphi_j)$ of these events.

Boole's "conditions of possible experience"

Pitowsky's pellucid summary:

Boole's problem is simple: we are given rational numbers which indicate the relative frequencies of certain events. If no logical relations obtain among the events, then the only constraints imposed on these numbers are that they each be non-negative and less than one. If however, the events are logically interconnected, there are further equalities or inequalities that obtain among the numbers. The problem thus is to determine the numerical relations among frequencies, in terms of equalities and inequalities, which are induced by a set of logical relations among the events. The equalities and inequalities are called "conditions of possible experience".

More formally, we are given basic events E_1, \dots, E_n , and boolean functions $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_m$ of these events. Such a function can be described by a propositional formula in the variables E_1, \dots, E_n .

Suppose further that we are given probabilities $p(E_i)$, $p(\varphi_j)$ of these events.

Question: What **numerical** relationships between the probabilities can we infer from the **logical** relationships between the events?

A Simple Observation

A Simple Observation

We have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_N , with probabilities $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$.

A Simple Observation

We have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_N , with probabilities $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$.

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N,$$

A Simple Observation

We have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_N , with probabilities $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$.

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg\phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg\phi_i.$$

A Simple Observation

We have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_N , with probabilities $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$.

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg\phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg\phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \text{Prob}\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg\phi_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \text{Prob}(\neg\phi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1 - p_i) = (N - 1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

A Simple Observation

We have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_N , with probabilities $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$.

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg\phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg\phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \text{Prob}\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg\phi_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \text{Prob}(\neg\phi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1 - p_i) = (N - 1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

Hence we obtain the inequality

$$\sum_{i=1}^N p_i \leq N - 1.$$

Logical analysis of the Bell table

Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a_1, b_1)	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
(a_1, b_2)	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
(a_2, b_1)	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
(a_2, b_2)	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a_1, b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1, b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_1 &= (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_2 &= (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2 \\ \varphi_3 &= (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_4 &= (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.\end{aligned}$$

Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a_1, b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1, b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_1 &= (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_2 &= (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2 \\ \varphi_3 &= (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_4 &= (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.\end{aligned}$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory.

Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a_1, b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1, b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_1 &= (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_2 &= (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2 \\ \varphi_3 &= (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1 \\ \varphi_4 &= (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.\end{aligned}$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory.

The violation of the logical Bell inequality is 1/4.

The general form

The general form

Given a family of propositions $\{\varphi_i\}$, we say it is **K -consistent** if the size of the largest consistent subfamily is K .

The general form

Given a family of propositions $\{\varphi_i\}$, we say it is **K -consistent** if the size of the largest consistent subfamily is K .

Suppose that we have a K -consistent family $\{\varphi_i\}$ over the basic events E_1, \dots, E_n . For any probability distribution on the set of truth-value assignments to the E_j , with induced probabilities $p(\varphi_i)$ for the events φ_i , we have:

$$\sum_i p(\varphi_i) \leq K \tag{1}$$

The general form

Given a family of propositions $\{\varphi_i\}$, we say it is **K -consistent** if the size of the largest consistent subfamily is K .

Suppose that we have a K -consistent family $\{\varphi_i\}$ over the basic events E_1, \dots, E_n . For any probability distribution on the set of truth-value assignments to the E_j , with induced probabilities $p(\varphi_i)$ for the events φ_i , we have:

$$\sum_i p(\varphi_i) \leq K \tag{1}$$

Remarkably, **all Bell inequalities arise this way** (Abramsky and Hardy, *Logical Bell inequalities*, Physical Review A 2012)

Theorem

A rational inequality is satisfied by all non-contextual empirical models if and only if it is equivalent to a logical Bell inequality of the above form.

Answering Boole, Quantum questions

Answering Boole, Quantum questions

This gives a full logical answer to Boole's problem.

Answering Boole, Quantum questions

This gives a full logical answer to Boole's problem.

The following quotation from Pitowsky suggests that he may have envisaged the possibility of such a result:

In fact, all facet inequalities for $c(n)$ should follow from "Venn diagrams", that is, the possible relations among n events in a probability space.

Answering Boole, Quantum questions

This gives a full logical answer to Boole's problem.

The following quotation from Pitowsky suggests that he may have envisaged the possibility of such a result:

In fact, all facet inequalities for $c(n)$ should follow from "Venn diagrams", that is, the possible relations among n events in a probability space.

With contextuality, we are concerned with

quantum conditions of impossible experience

Science Fiction? – The News from Delft

Science Fiction? – The News from Delft

First Loophole-free Bell test, 2015

First Loophole-free Bell test, 2015

NATURE | LETTER

日本語要約

Loophole-free Bell inequality violation using electron spins separated by 1.3 kilometres

B. Hensen, H. Bernien, A. E. Dréau, A. Reiserer, N. Kalb, M. S. Blok, J. Ruitenberg, R. F. L. Vermeulen, R. N. Schouten, C. Abellán, W. Amaya, V. Pruneri, M. W. Mitchell, M. Markham, D. J. Twitchen, D. Elkouss, S. Wehner, T. H. Taminiau & R. Hanson

Nature **526**, 682–686 (29 October 2015) doi:10.1038/nature15759

Received 19 August 2015 Accepted 28 September 2015 Published online 21 October 2015

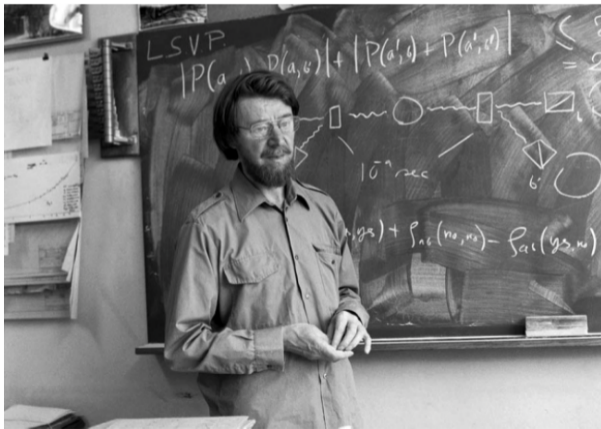
More than 50 years ago¹, John Bell proved that no theory of nature that obeys locality and realism² can reproduce all the predictions of quantum theory: in any local-realist theory, the correlations between outcomes of measurements on distant particles satisfy an inequality that can be violated if the particles are entangled. Numerous Bell inequality tests have been reported^{3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13}; however, all experiments reported so far required additional assumptions to obtain a contradiction with local realism, resulting in 'loopholes'^{13, 14, 15, 16}. Here we report a Bell experiment that is free of any such additional assumption and thus directly tests the principles underlying Bell's inequality. We use an event-ready scheme^{17, 18, 19} that enables the generation of robust entanglement between distant electron spins (estimated state fidelity of 0.92 ± 0.03). Efficient spin read-out avoids the fair-sampling assumption (detection loophole^{14, 15}), while the use of fast random-basis selection and spin read-out combined with a spatial separation of 1.3 kilometres ensure the required locality conditions¹³. We performed 245 trials that tested the CHSH–Bell inequality²⁰ $S \leq 2$ and found $S = 2.42 \pm 0.20$ (where S quantifies the correlation between measurement outcomes). A null-hypothesis test yields a probability of at most $P = 0.039$ that a local-realist model for space-like separated sites could produce data with a violation at least as large as we observe, even when allowing for memory^{16, 21} in the devices. Our data hence imply statistically significant rejection of the local-realist null hypothesis. This conclusion may be further consolidated in future experiments; for instance, reaching a value of $P = 0.001$ would require approximately 700 trials for an observed $S = 2.4$. With improvements, our experiment could be used for testing less-conventional theories, and for implementing device-independent quantum-secure communication²² and randomness certification^{23, 24}.

Quantum 'spookiness' passes toughest test yet

Experiment plugs loopholes in previous demonstrations of 'action at a distance', against Einstein's objections — and could make data encryption safer.

Zeeya Merali

27 August 2015

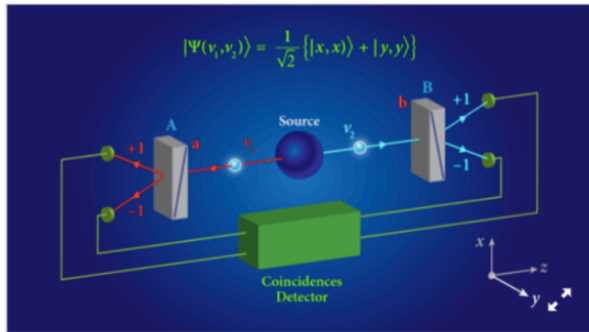


Viewpoint: Closing the Door on Einstein and Bohr's Quantum Debate

Alain Aspect, Laboratoire Charles Fabry, Institut d'Optique Graduate School, CNRS, Université Paris-Saclay, Palaiseau, France

December 16, 2015 • *Physics* 8, 123

By closing two loopholes at once, three experimental tests of Bell's inequalities remove the last doubts that we should renounce local realism. They also open the door to new quantum information technologies.



APS/Alan Stonebraker

Figure 1: An apparatus for performing a Bell test. A source emits a pair of entangled photons v_1 and v_2 . Their polarizations are analyzed by polarizers A and B (grey blocks), which are aligned, respectively,

Timeline

- 1932 von Neumann's Mathematical Foundations of Quantum Mechanics
- 1935 EPR Paradox, the Einstein-Bohr debate
- 1964 Bell's Theorem
- 1982 First experimental test of EPR and Bell inequalities
(Aspect, Grangier, Roger, Dalibard)
- 1984 Bennett-Brassard quantum key distribution protocol
- 1985 Deutch Quantum Computing paper
- 1993 Quantum teleportation
(Bennett, Brassard, Crépeau, Jozsa, Peres, Wootters)
- 1994 Shor's algorithm
- 2015 First loophole-free Bell tests (Delft, NIST, Vienna)
- 2019 Quantum supremacy claimed by Google
- 2020 Quantum supremacy via boson sampling by USTC
- 2022 Nobel Prize in Physics for Aspect, Clauser and Zeilinger for Bell experiments
- 2024 Emerging quantum computing and technology industry ...

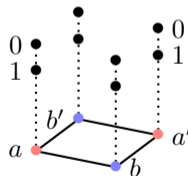
Formalising empirical data*

*SA, Brandenburger, *New Journal of Physics*, 2011.

A **measurement scenario** $\mathbf{X} = \langle X, \Sigma, O \rangle$:

- X – a finite set of measurements
- Σ – a simplicial complex on X
faces are called the **measurement contexts**
- $O = (O_x)_{x \in X}$ – for each $x \in X$ a finite non-empty set of possible outcomes O_x

in \ out	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	–	–	–	–
(a, b')	–	–	–	–
(a', b)	–	–	–	–
(a', b')	–	–	–	–



Formalising empirical data*

*SA, Brandenburger, *New Journal of Physics*, 2011.

A **measurement scenario** $\mathbf{X} = \langle X, \Sigma, O \rangle$:

- X – a finite set of measurements
- Σ – a simplicial complex on X
faces are called the **measurement contexts**
- $O = (O_x)_{x \in X}$ – for each $x \in X$ a finite non-empty set of possible outcomes O_x

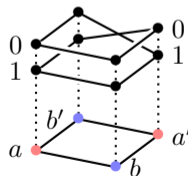
An **empirical model** $e = \{e_\sigma\}_{\sigma \in \Sigma}$ on \mathbf{X} :

- Each e_σ is a prob. distribution over joint outcomes $\prod_{x \in \sigma} O_x$ for σ
- **generalised no-signalling** holds:
 $\forall \sigma, \tau \in \Sigma, \sigma \subseteq \tau.$

$$e_\tau|_\sigma = e_\sigma$$

(i.e. marginals are well-defined)

in \ out	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a, b')	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a', b)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a', b')	0	1/2	1/2	0



Formalising empirical data*

*SA, Brandenburger, *New Journal of Physics*, 2011.

A **measurement scenario** $\mathbf{X} = \langle X, \Sigma, O \rangle$:

- X – a finite set of measurements
- Σ – a simplicial complex on X
faces are called the **measurement contexts**
- $O = (O_x)_{x \in X}$ – for each $x \in X$ a finite non-empty set of possible outcomes O_x

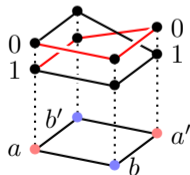
An **empirical model** $e = \{e_\sigma\}_{\sigma \in \Sigma}$ on \mathbf{X} :

- Each e_σ is a prob. distribution over joint outcomes $\prod_{x \in \sigma} O_x$ for σ
- **generalised no-signalling** holds:
 $\forall \sigma, \tau \in \Sigma, \sigma \subseteq \tau.$

$$e_\tau|_\sigma = e_\sigma$$

(i.e. marginals are well-defined)

in \ out	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
(a, b')	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
(a', b)	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
(a', b')	0	$1/2$	$1/2$	0



Contextuality defined

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

That is, we can glue all the local information together into a global consistent description from which the local information can be recovered.

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

That is, we can glue all the local information together into a global consistent description from which the local information can be recovered.

We call such a d a **global section**.

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

That is, we can glue all the local information together into a global consistent description from which the local information can be recovered.

We call such a d a **global section**.

If no such global section exists, the empirical model is **contextual**.

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

That is, we can glue all the local information together into a global consistent description from which the local information can be recovered.

We call such a d a **global section**.

If no such global section exists, the empirical model is **contextual**.

Thus contextuality arises where we have a family of data which is **locally consistent** but **globally inconsistent**.

Contextuality defined

An empirical model $\{e_C\}_{C \in \Sigma}$ on a measurement scenario (X, Σ, O) is **non-contextual** if there is a distribution d on $\prod_{x \in X} O_x$ such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$d|_{\sigma} = e_{\sigma}.$$

That is, we can glue all the local information together into a global consistent description from which the local information can be recovered.

We call such a d a **global section**.

If no such global section exists, the empirical model is **contextual**.

Thus contextuality arises where we have a family of data which is **locally consistent** but **globally inconsistent**.

The import of Bell's theorem and similar results is that there are empirical models arising from quantum mechanics which are contextual.

Bundle Diagrams

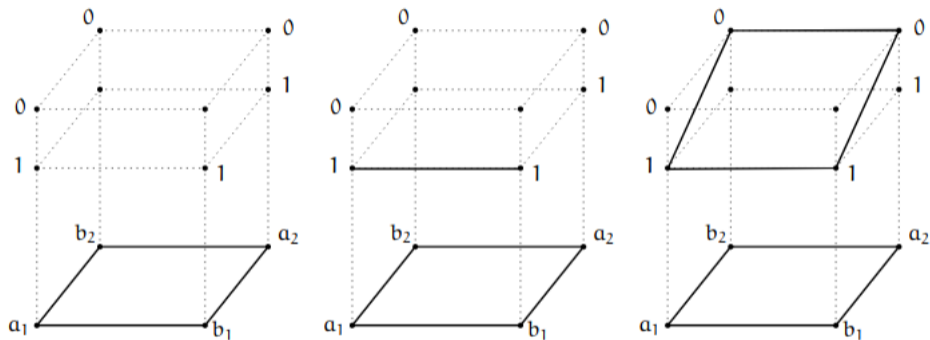


Figure 1: A (2,2,2) Bell-type scenario. The section $(a_1, b_1) \mapsto (1, 1)$ is represented in the centre. On the right, the global section $(a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2) \mapsto (1, 1, 0, 0)$

Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

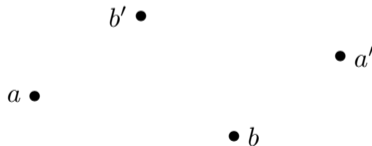
	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

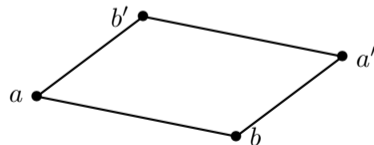


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

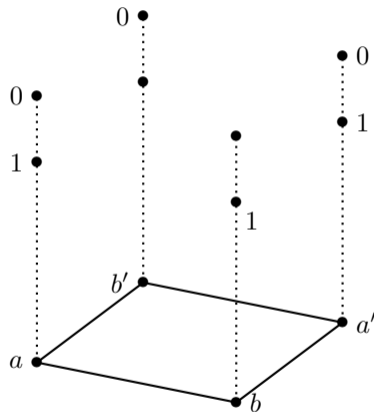


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

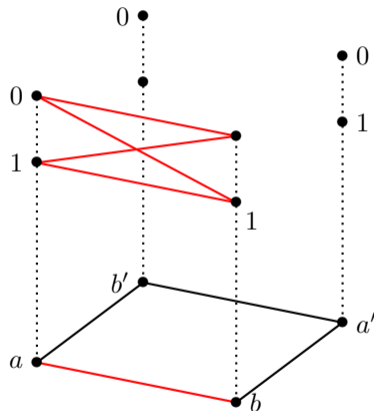


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

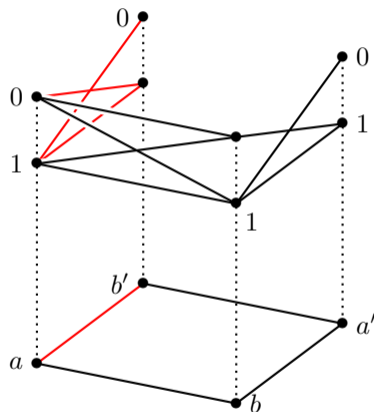


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	✗

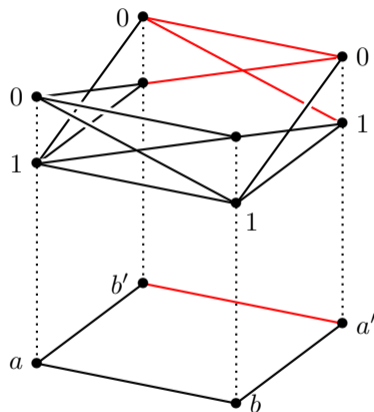


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

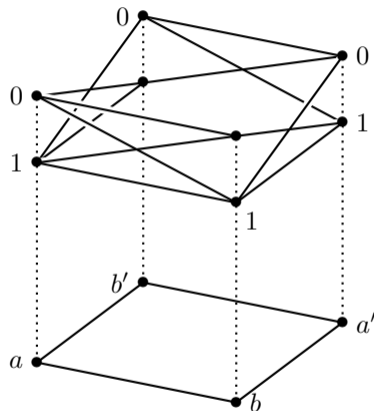


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

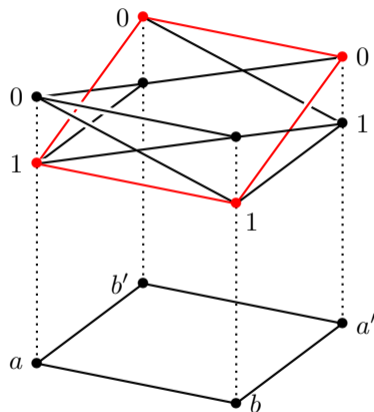


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

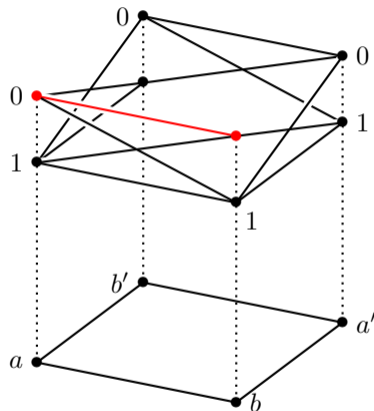


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

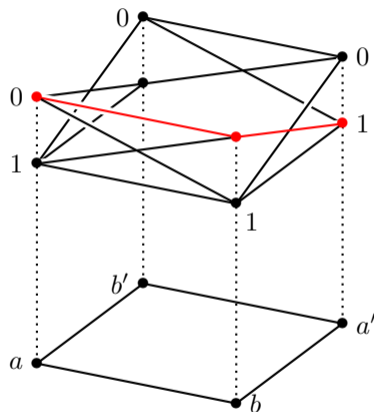


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

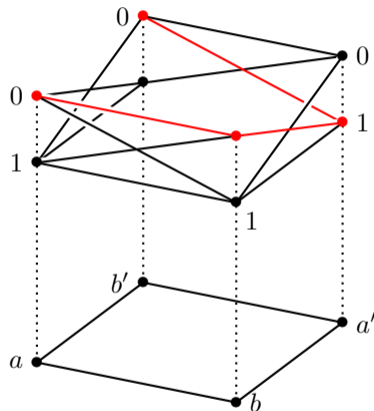


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

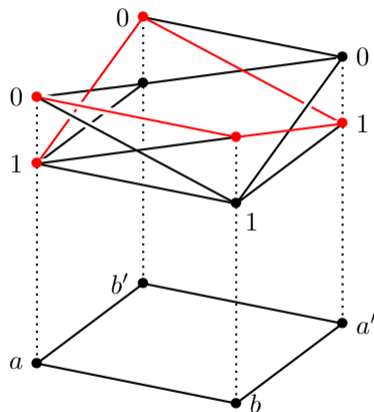


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	✗

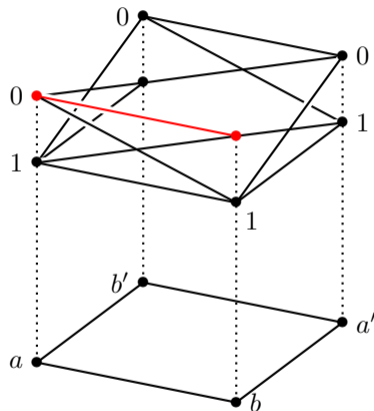


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	×	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	×

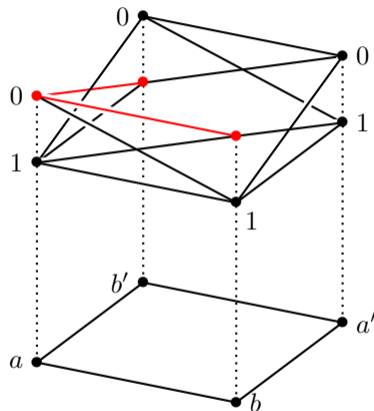


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	✗

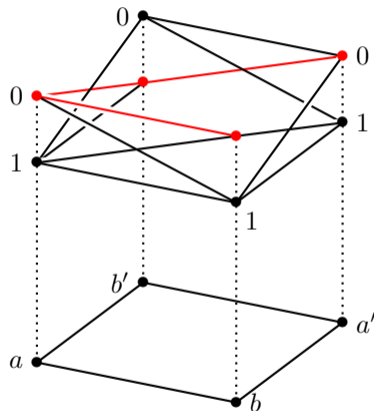


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	✗

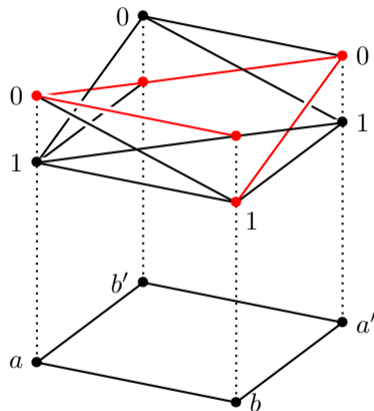


Bundle Pictures

Logical Contextuality

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	✓	✓	✓
ab'	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b$	✗	✓	✓	✓
$a'b'$	✓	✓	✓	✗



Contextuality

Definition

There is a hierarchy of contextuality

Probabilistic \subset **Logical** \subset **Strong**

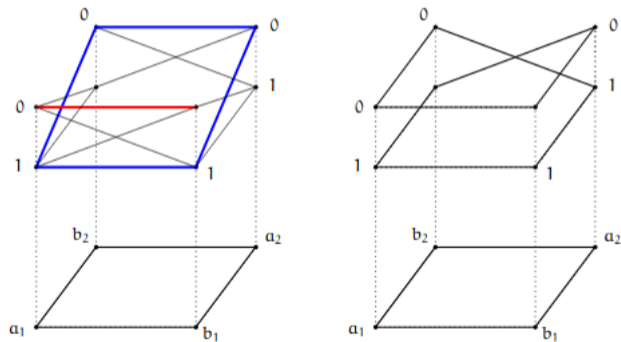
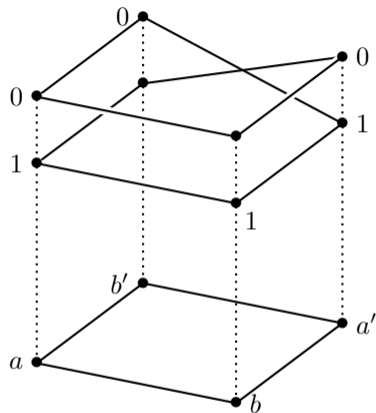


Figure 2: The Hardy model and the PR-Box model as bundle diagrams.

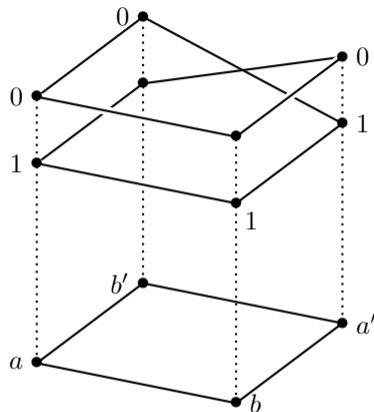
The Bell table and the “Möbius strip”

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1, b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8



The Bell table and the “Möbius strip”

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1, b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2, b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8



Physics \leftrightarrow Probability \leftrightarrow Logic \leftrightarrow Topology

Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length N is a sequence of statements

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &: S_2 \text{ is true,} \\ S_2 &: S_3 \text{ is true,} \\ &\vdots \\ S_{N-1} &: S_N \text{ is true,} \\ S_N &: S_1 \text{ is false.} \end{aligned}$$

For $N = 1$, this is the classic Liar sentence

$$S : S \text{ is false.}$$

Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length N is a sequence of statements

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &: S_2 \text{ is true,} \\ S_2 &: S_3 \text{ is true,} \\ &\vdots \\ S_{N-1} &: S_N \text{ is true,} \\ S_N &: S_1 \text{ is false.} \end{aligned}$$

For $N = 1$, this is the classic Liar sentence

$$S : S \text{ is false.}$$

Following Cook, Walicki et al. we can model the situation by boolean equations:

$$x_1 = x_2, \quad \dots, \quad x_{n-1} = x_n, \quad x_n = \neg x_1$$

Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length N is a sequence of statements

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &: S_2 \text{ is true,} \\ S_2 &: S_3 \text{ is true,} \\ &\vdots \\ S_{N-1} &: S_N \text{ is true,} \\ S_N &: S_1 \text{ is false.} \end{aligned}$$

For $N = 1$, this is the classic Liar sentence

$$S : S \text{ is false.}$$

Following Cook, Walicki et al. we can model the situation by boolean equations:

$$x_1 = x_2, \quad \dots, \quad x_{n-1} = x_n, \quad x_n = \neg x_1$$

The “paradoxical” nature of the original statements is now captured by the inconsistency of these equations.

Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$\begin{aligned} \{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 &= x_2 \\ \{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 &= x_3 \\ &\vdots \\ \{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} &= x_n \\ \{x_n, x_1\} : x_n &= \neg x_1 \end{aligned}$$

Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$\begin{aligned}\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 &= x_2 \\ \{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 &= x_3 \\ &\vdots \\ \{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} &= x_n \\ \{x_n, x_1\} : x_n &= \neg x_1\end{aligned}$$

Any subset of up to $n - 1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$\begin{aligned}\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 &= x_2 \\ \{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 &= x_3 \\ &\vdots \\ \{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} &= x_n \\ \{x_n, x_1\} : x_n &= \neg x_1\end{aligned}$$

Any subset of up to $n - 1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

Up to rearrangement, **the Liar cycle of length 4 corresponds exactly to the PR box.**

Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$\begin{aligned}\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 &= x_2 \\ \{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 &= x_3 \\ &\vdots \\ \{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} &= x_n \\ \{x_n, x_1\} : x_n &= \neg x_1\end{aligned}$$

Any subset of up to $n - 1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

Up to rearrangement, **the Liar cycle of length 4 corresponds exactly to the PR box.**

The usual reasoning to derive a contradiction from the Liar cycle corresponds precisely to the attempt to find a univocal path in the bundle diagram.

The Robinson Consistency Theorem

The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let T_i be a theory over the language L_i , $i = 1, 2$. If there is no sentence ϕ in $L_1 \cap L_2$ with $T_1 \vdash \phi$ and $T_2 \vdash \neg\phi$, then $T_1 \cup T_2$ is consistent.

The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let T_i be a theory over the language L_i , $i = 1, 2$. If there is no sentence ϕ in $L_1 \cap L_2$ with $T_1 \vdash \phi$ and $T_2 \vdash \neg\phi$, then $T_1 \cup T_2$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let T_i be a theory over the language L_i , $i = 1, 2$. If there is no sentence ϕ in $L_1 \cap L_2$ with $T_1 \vdash \phi$ and $T_2 \vdash \neg\phi$, then $T_1 \cup T_2$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

Note, however, that an extension of the theorem beyond the binary case **fails**. That is, if we have three theories which are pairwise compatible, it need not be the case that they can be glued together consistently.

The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let T_i be a theory over the language L_i , $i = 1, 2$. If there is no sentence ϕ in $L_1 \cap L_2$ with $T_1 \vdash \phi$ and $T_2 \vdash \neg\phi$, then $T_1 \cup T_2$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

Note, however, that an extension of the theorem beyond the binary case **fails**. That is, if we have three theories which are pairwise compatible, it need not be the case that they can be glued together consistently.

A minimal counter-example is provided at the propositional level by the following **Specker triangle**:

$$T_1 = \{x_1 \longrightarrow \neg x_2\}, T_2 = \{x_2 \longrightarrow \neg x_3\}, T_3 = \{x_3 \longrightarrow \neg x_1\}.$$